

Letter from the Co-Secretaries-General

Distinguished Delegates of FTEALMUN'25,

It is a great honour to welcome you all to FTEALMUN'25. In an age when global challenges affect each of us more profoundly than ever before, this conference represents far more than a gathering of students. It is a space where young voices can question, connect, and take the first steps toward shaping lasting change. The committees and agendas have been crafted with care, each one designed to spark meaningful dialogue, challenge existing perspectives, and inspire innovative solutions to the world's most pressing issues.

The true strength of FTEALMUN'25 lies in its diversity. Bringing together delegates from different backgrounds and viewpoints, this conference is a reminder that progress stems from the exchange of ideas. It is not only about policies or resolutions but about learning from one another, testing convictions, and building a community where every vision is valued. As you take on the role of diplomats, I encourage you to keep your minds open, to lead with patience and empathy, and to embrace the discomfort that often comes with meaningful negotiation.

I hope this experience empowers you to bring your full self into every discussion. Let it be a stepping stone in your journey to becoming thoughtful, forward-looking leaders. Each of you carries a unique perspective, and together you will define the spirit and success of this conference. My team and I are excited to see the passion, creativity, and determination you bring to the table.

On behalf of the entire Secretariat, thank you for joining us in this endeavour. May FTEALMUN'25 not only be remembered for its debates but also for the friendships formed, the lessons learned, and the inspiration that stays with us long after the final session concludes.

Warm regards,
Haktan Efe Özgür, Ela Çakır
Co-Secretaries-General of FTEALMUN'25

Letter From Under-Secretary General

Most Esteemed Delegates of JCC,

It is my utmost pleasure to welcome you all to this year's FTEALMUN conference. My name is Ceylin Umay Köylü, and I will be serving you as the Under-Secretary General of this committee during the following three days.

With the hours of work specifically dedicated to this committee, me and my academic assistants put in an extraordinary preparation and care throughout these earlier stages, so I highly encourage all of you to read the study guide carefully and come prepared to the committee.

If you have any questions in mind, you can contact me at ceylinumay@hotmail.com or my personal phone number +905462868554. I wish the best for all of you, and I hope we all enjoy our time throughout the conference.

Best Wishes

Under-Secretary

General Ceylin Umay

Köylü

Letters From Academic Assistants

Dear Delegates of JCC,

We welcome you all to this conference and to this committee. We, as your academic assistants, Eda Sahra Yiğittop and Dora Kölemen, hoping to be with you throughout this conference.

We tried our best, worked carefully for this committee and for all of our delegates so that all of you can have the best experience in these upcoming three days. We will try our best to help you all in this conference whenever you need help with anything that comes to mind about this committee. Please do not hesitate to ask us or our Under Secretary General whenever you need any help or have any questions in mind. We all wish the best for all of our delegates.

If any of you have any questions in mind you can also contact us via yigitpeda@gmail.com and dorakolemen@gmail.com or our personal numbers, +905365748847 and +905427109744 we wish the best for all of you.

Best Regards
Academic
Assistants
Eda Sahra Yiğittop and Dora Kölemen

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1) Introduction to the Agenda Item

The year 1462 stands as one of the most turbulent and symbolically charged moments in the history of Wallachian–Ottoman relations. At the center of this confrontation was Vlad III of Wallachia—better known as Vlad Țepeș or Vlad the Impaler—whose fierce struggle against the expanding Ottoman Empire would become the subject of both political legend and historical scrutiny. By the mid-15th century, the Ottoman state, under the rule of Sultan Mehmed II, was rapidly consolidating its power across the Balkans. Following the conquest of Constantinople in 1453, Mehmed’s imperial agenda increasingly focused on securing tribute, territorial control, and political submission from bordering principalities. Wallachia, positioned strategically between Ottoman-held Bulgaria and Hungary, represented not only a buffer state but also a crucial pathway for further Ottoman expansion into Central Europe.

Relations between Wallachia and the Ottoman Empire before 1462 were marked by alternating periods of vassalage, rebellion, and careful diplomatic balancing. Vlad III’s early reign included a temporary acceptance of tributary obligations to the Sultan, a pragmatic choice for a principality constantly threatened by larger powers. Yet this fragile arrangement was strained by long-standing tensions, including disputes over border control, the presence of Ottoman garrisons near the Danube, and the political manipulations that frequently determined who would rule in Bucharest or Târgoviște. For Mehmed II, a compliant Wallachian voivode was necessary to maintain stability in the region. For Vlad, however, independence—both political and military—was essential for safeguarding Wallachian sovereignty.

The conflict of 1462 erupted when Vlad refused to continue paying the jizya tribute and executed the Ottoman envoys sent to negotiate with him. This act, accompanied by a series of aggressive raids across the Danube into Ottoman territory, shattered any remaining diplomatic equilibrium. Vlad’s scorched-earth tactics, ambush warfare, and strategic use of terror—including the mass impalement of Ottoman captives—were intended to compensate for Wallachia’s military inferiority while sending a message of defiance to the increasingly powerful empire. These raids provoked an enormous Ottoman response: Mehmed II personally led a campaign into Wallachia, seeking both retribution and the installation of a more loyal ruler.

The ensuing military confrontation was characterized by asymmetrical warfare. Vlad relied on night attacks, psychological warfare, and the manipulation of terrain—most famously seen in the “Night Attack at Târgoviște,” where Wallachian forces attempted to assassinate the Sultan within his own camp. Though the attack failed in its primary aim, it left a profound impression on contemporary observers and highlighted the ferocity of Wallachian resistance. Ultimately, despite his tactical ingenuity, Vlad was forced to retreat into the Carpathians as Mehmed installed Vlad’s brother, Radu the Handsome, as a more cooperative voivode.

Thus, the Wallachian–Ottoman conflict of 1462 illustrates a critical intersection of political autonomy, military innovation, and imperial ambition. It was not merely a border skirmish but a defining moment in the struggle between a rising empire and a principality fighting to maintain its independence. The dramatic events of this year would shape regional power

dynamics for decades and leave a lasting legacy in both Ottoman chronicles and European memory.

2) Brief History of Wallachia

Wallachia, one of the two principal historical Romanian states that would later contribute to the formation of modern Romania, occupied a strategically vital region between the Lower Danube and the Southern Carpathians. Traditionally divided into Muntenia (Greater Wallachia) and Oltenia (Lesser Wallachia), and occasionally associated with Dobruja due to temporary rule over the area, Wallachia held a geopolitical position that placed it directly along the frontier of Ottoman expansion. Its location made it both a valuable buffer and a contested zone of influence for regional powers.

The principality emerged in the 13th century through the gradual consolidation of smaller Romanian political formations. By 1330, under Basarab I—whose victory at the Battle of Posada secured independence from Hungarian attempts at domination—Wallachia had become a unified and relatively autonomous state. Over the next century, it maintained this autonomy despite persistent pressure from surrounding empires.

Wallachia's first formal submission to Ottoman suzerainty came in 1417, marking the beginning of a long and complex relationship characterized by alternating periods of tribute, resistance, and renegotiated autonomy. While Ottoman overlordship endured in various forms until the mid-19th century, the principality frequently asserted its independence. Moments of defiance, led by figures such as Vlad III Țepeș (Vlad the Impaler) and later Michael the Brave, repeatedly disrupted Ottoman control and underscored Wallachia's determination to preserve its internal governance. External powers—including the Kingdom of Hungary, the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, and later the Russian Empire—also intervened at times, further complicating the region's political landscape.

This background of contested autonomy and intermittent suzerainty set the stage for the dramatic escalation of tensions in 1462, when Vlad III's refusal to continue Ottoman tribute and his aggressive campaigns along the Danube ignited open conflict with Sultan Mehmed II. The 1462 confrontation thus emerged not as an isolated event, but as the culmination of over a century of fluctuating relations between a principality striving to protect its sovereignty and an empire determined to secure its expanding borders.

Establishment of Wallachia

The establishment of Wallachia (Romanian: *descălecatul Țării Românești*)—the first independent Romanian principality—occurred in the early 14th century through the gradual unification of several smaller political formations situated between the Carpathian Mountains and the rivers Danube, Siret, and Milcov. Before this consolidation took place, the region had been repeatedly traversed and influenced by successive waves of nomadic peoples, the last of whom were the Cumans and the Mongols. Following the Mongol invasion of 1241–1242, the area emerged as a frontier zone contested between the Golden Horde, representing the westernmost portion of the Mongol Empire, and the Kingdom of Hungary. Romanian communities in Muntenia, east of the Olt River, were compelled to pay tribute to the

Mongols, while those in Oltenia, west of the river, came under the authority of the Hungarian-appointed Bans of Severin.

By the late 13th century, Mongol dominance in the region began to wane, coinciding with a period of political crisis within the Kingdom of Hungary. These developments allowed the nascent Romanian polities of the area to strengthen their autonomy and eventually coalesce into a principality. A Romanian tradition attributes the founding of Wallachia to Radu Negru (“Radu the Black”), who is said to have descended from the Făgăraș region into the lowlands in the 1290s with a large following. However, historian Jean W. Sedlar considers it more plausible that local Romanian leaders in the Olt and Argeș valleys selected one of their own, a certain Basarab, to lead them.

It was Voivode Basarab I (c. 1310–1352) who ultimately asserted Wallachia's independence by rejecting the suzerainty of the Hungarian crown. His decisive victory over King Charles I of Hungary at the Battle of Posada on November 12, 1330, secured international recognition for Wallachia's autonomy. During the reign of Basarab's son, Nicolae Alexandru (1352–1364), the Metropolitan See of Wallachia was established under the authority of the Ecumenical Patriarchate of Constantinople, marking an important institutional consolidation of the principality. Wallachia's increasing political and economic maturity was further reflected in the minting of its first silver and bronze coins in 1365.

3) 1400-1600 Ottoman Wallachian Relations

Throughout the 14th and 15th centuries, the regions surrounding Wallachia—Transylvania, Moldavia, and the broader intra-Carpathian area—underwent profound political and military transformations that directly influenced Wallachia’s position in the struggle against Ottoman expansion. As the Ottomans pressed northward after their victories in the Balkans, Hungary and its monarchs attempted to strengthen their defensive buffer zones. Sigismund of Hungary sought to secure loyalty from neighboring Orthodox rulers by granting them estates within his realm, an effort to draw principalities like Wallachia and Serbia into his political orbit. This system of shifting alliances created a complex regional landscape in which Wallachia had to balance Hungarian influence with the increasingly unavoidable power of the Ottoman Empire.

Transylvania, a multi-ethnic province under Hungarian rule, became a frontline region against Ottoman incursions. Annual Ottoman raids beginning in the 1420s forced local communities—Saxons, Székelys, and Hungarians—to fortify their towns and churches and develop new defensive strategies. The rising military burdens placed heavy economic pressure on the peasantry, sparking revolts such as the Bobâlna uprising of 1437. Figures like John Hunyadi emerged from this environment as key defenders of Christendom, achieving major victories against the Ottomans and temporarily halting their advance. His stand at Belgrade in 1456 delayed Ottoman domination in the region and indirectly provided Wallachia with the breathing room needed to pursue its own policies.

While Hungary and Transylvania attempted to organize Christian resistance, Wallachia faced its own internal instability. After the death of Mircea the Elder, the principality was plagued by rapid successions and competing claimants supported alternately by Hungary and the Ottomans. This political fragility made Wallachia vulnerable to external manipulation and deepened its reliance on neighboring powers. Ottoman suzerainty grew increasingly assertive, with Wallachian rulers gradually being forced to provide military assistance, tribute, or political obedience to Istanbul.

It was in this atmosphere of regional turbulence that Vlad III Țepeș came to power. Initially placed on the throne with Ottoman approval, Vlad later aligned himself with anti-Ottoman forces and used the disunity of neighboring states to reassert Wallachian autonomy. The broader context—Transylvania’s defensive struggles, Moldavia’s shifting alliances, and Hungary’s intermittent strength—helped shape Vlad’s strategic calculations. His decision in 1461–1462 to refuse tribute and launch devastating raids across the Danube was influenced by the belief that the regional balance of power might still permit successful resistance.

Moldavia, under Stephen the Great, would later adopt similar policies, showing the same oscillation between tribute, alliance, and defiance. But in 1462, Wallachia stood alone against Mehmed II's retaliation. The massive Ottoman invasion that followed was part of a wider imperial strategy to bring the Carpathian principalities firmly under Ottoman authority, ending the period of fluctuating loyalties and contested suzerainty.

Thus, the 1462 Wallachian–Ottoman conflict must be understood within the wider geopolitical framework of the Carpathian basin. The constant Ottoman pressure, the defensive anxieties of Hungary and Transylvania, and the internal vulnerabilities of Wallachia all converged to produce one of the most dramatic confrontations of the late medieval Balkans: Vlad the Impaler's rebellion and Mehmed II's determined campaign to restore Ottoman dominance.

Ottoman Suzerainty and the Emergence of the Principality of Transylvania (1530–1594)

Following 1529, resistance to John I in Transylvania collapsed through a sequence of small military actions. Key magnates such as Stephen Majláth eventually shifted allegiance to John I—Majláth in early 1532—and the important Saxon town of Sibiu was occupied in 1536. A pivotal secret agreement, the Treaty of Oradea, was concluded on February 24, 1538, between the representatives of the two rival kings of Hungary. It stipulated that each ruler would retain control over the lands he already possessed, and in return John I—who was

childless at the time—promised to acknowledge Habsburg succession upon his death.

The situation changed drastically in 1540 when John I married Isabella, daughter of Sigismund I of Poland, who gave birth to a son, John II Sigismund. On his deathbed, John I secured an oath from his barons to disregard the Treaty of Oradea, and his adviser, George Martinuzzi, arranged for the infant prince to be proclaimed King of Hungary (1540–1571). Ferdinand I attempted to seize Buda, but withdrew in the face of the advancing Ottoman army. On August 29, 1541, Sultan Suleiman I summoned the Hungarian nobles to his camp; during the audience, his troops occupied Buda. The sultan then granted the lands east of the Tisa River—including Transylvania—to Queen Isabella and her son in exchange for annual tribute.

On October 18, 1541, the eastern territories of the former Kingdom of Hungary swore allegiance to the infant king at the Diet of Debrecen, signalling the formation of a semi-autonomous polity. Martinuzzi nevertheless continued negotiations with Ferdinand I to reunify the kingdom. In 1551, Ferdinand sent troops into Transylvania, where he was recognized as ruler by the local Diet. However, Ottoman advances in 1552, especially the occupation of much of Banat, ensured that Ferdinand could not consolidate control. As a result, the Diet meeting in Sebeş on March 12, 1556 reinstated allegiance to John II Sigismund, allowing him and Queen Isabella to return.

Religious transformation marked the mid-16th century. The Saxons adopted Lutheranism, while most Hungarians embraced Calvinism or Unitarianism. Only the Székelys retained their traditional adherence to Catholicism. The Diet of Torda in 1568 recognized free practice

for four “received denominations”—Lutheranism, Calvinism, Unitarianism, and Catholicism—while Eastern Orthodoxy remained merely tolerated. The legal and social position of Romanians deteriorated during this period. The Diets of 1554 and 1555 implemented discriminatory judicial rules, and in 1559 additional financial burdens were imposed on Romanian peasants.

As observed by the Dalmatian humanist Antun Vrančić, Transylvania was inhabited by Székelys, Hungarians, Saxons, and a large Romanian population, the latter having far fewer rights, limited noble representation, and suffering generally harsher social conditions.

The Székelys faced growing military obligations and increased taxation. Despite tax exemptions granted to their leaders in 1554, foot soldiers remained subject to heavy dues, leading to a failed uprising in 1562. Meanwhile, the Saxon towns continued to prosper economically, although their desire for ethnic separation slowed demographic growth by forbidding non-Saxons, including Hungarians, from settling within their walls.

A further turning point came with the Treaty of Speyer on August 16, 1570, where John II Sigismund renounced the Hungarian crown in favor of Maximilian I, accepting instead the title “Prince of Transylvania and parts of Hungary.” This agreement defined the Principality of Transylvania and its associated Partium territories. Upon John II Sigismund’s death in 1571, Ottoman intervention secured the election of Stephen Báthory as prince, who later became King of Poland in 1575, creating a personal union between the two states until his death in 1586. Administration of Transylvania passed successively to his brother Christopher Báthory and then to Christopher’s son, Sigismund Báthory.

In 1594, Sigismund Báthory declared Transylvania’s intention to join the anti-Ottoman alliance formed by Emperor Rudolf II, Philip II of Spain, and various Italian and German states. Although the Estates initially withheld approval, they eventually endorsed the alliance on January 28, 1595, after opposition leaders were executed. Rudolf II formally recognized Sigismund’s princely authority.

Wallachia Under Ottoman Oversight

Wallachia experienced increasing instability during the mid-16th century. The short and troubled reigns following Radu V weakened the principality. Beginning with Mircea the Shepherd (1545–1559), the first ruler appointed directly by the sultan, the Wallachian throne increasingly became attainable through payments and political bargaining at the Sublime Porte. Even Michael the Brave, who later became a major anti-Ottoman leader, initially gained the throne with the help of Ottoman-influenced intermediaries, including the English ambassador Sir Edward Barton.

Michael moved quickly to strengthen central authority by replacing the boyar members of the *sfatul domnesc* with *dregători*, officials loyal to him personally. Adopting a firm anti-Ottoman stance, he allied with Sigismund Báthory of Transylvania and Aaron the Tyrant of Moldavia. The coordinated anti-Ottoman revolt erupted on November 13, 1594, with the killing of all Ottomans present in Wallachia.

Moldavia Under Increasing Pressure

In Moldavia, Peter IV Rareş attempted in 1531 to reclaim the Pocuția region from Poland, but suffered defeat. He later aligned secretly with Ferdinand I of Hungary, only to flee to Transylvania when Suleiman I launched a punitive expedition. The sultan replaced him with Stephen V Lăcustă (1538–1540) and annexed Brăila, Tighina, and the Budjak region. Peter Rareş regained power in 1541 after paying a large sum but died soon after, initiating a prolonged period of internal strife among rival claimants.

Anti-Ottoman sentiment resurfaced under John III the Terrible (1572–1574), who refused tribute. Although his combined Moldavian and Wallachian forces defeated the initial Ottoman-Wallachian punitive expedition, the sultan retaliated with a much larger army. John III was captured and executed by quartering. Aaron the Tyrant later joined the Wallachian and Transylvanian anti-Ottoman coalition, launching a revolt simultaneously with Michael the Brave on November 13, 1594.

The 16th century in Moldavia also witnessed cultural flourishing, notably in ecclesiastical mural painting. The exquisitely preserved interior and exterior frescoes of Voroneț Monastery exemplify the so-called “Moldavian style,” whose techniques remain partially mysterious.

4) 1462 Ottoman-Wallachian War (Night Attack at Târgoviște)

The **Night Attack at Târgoviște** (Romanian: *Atacul de noapte de la Târgoviște*) was a major confrontation between the forces of **Vlad III Țepeș**, ruler of Wallachia, and the troops of **Sultan Mehmed II** of the Ottoman Empire, taking place on the night of **17 June 1462**. Tensions between Vlad and Mehmed had been escalating for years, and the immediate trigger for war was the Sultan's discovery of Vlad's covert alliance with **King Matthias Corvinus of Hungary**. Mehmed initially attempted to neutralize Vlad by ordering an ambush, but the Wallachian ruler not only evaded the attack but retaliated by staging a devastating invasion of Ottoman Bulgaria. In response, the Sultan assembled an enormous army and launched a full-scale campaign aimed at subjugating Wallachia. What followed was a series of clashes, the most dramatic of which was Vlad's nocturnal attempt to infiltrate and assassinate Mehmed within his own camp. The attempt ultimately failed, but it inflicted significant chaos. When Mehmed finally reached the Wallachian capital of **Târgoviște**, he found it deserted—save for a small defensive detachment armed with cannons. As the Ottomans withdrew, they encountered an extensive “forest of the impaled,” consisting of exactly **23,844 impaled Turks**, a number Vlad himself reported to Corvinus. Although Mehmed managed to burn Brăila and capture considerable livestock and slaves, he ultimately retreated to **Adrianople**, unable to conquer Wallachia.

Background to the Conflict

After the **fall of Constantinople in 1453**, Sultan Mehmed II turned his attention to multiple fronts. In the east, the **Empire of Trebizond** and the **White Sheep**

Turkomans under **Uzun Hasan** still resisted Ottoman expansion; in the west, **Skanderbeg's Albania** continued to wage war, while **Bosnia** wavered in paying its tribute. Mehmed also sought full control over the **Danube**, since enemy fleets from the Holy Roman Empire could strike deep inland through the river.

Meanwhile, **Pope Pius II** attempted to launch a new crusade. On **26 September 1459**, he issued a call for Christian mobilization, and in **January 1460**, the Congress of Mantua officially proclaimed a three-year crusade. The initiative failed almost immediately, with the only enthusiastic supporter being **Vlad Țepeș**, whom the Pope admired.

By 1460–1461, Mehmed capitalized on Europe's inaction. He conquered **Smederevo**, the last independent Serbian stronghold, and forced the **Despotate of Morea** into submission—its major cities **Mistra** and **Corinth** surrendered without resistance.

Around this time, **Mihály Szilágyi**, Vlad's only reliable Hungarian ally, was captured in Bulgaria and executed—his soldiers tortured, and Szilágyi himself sawed in half. Mehmed then sent envoys demanding the overdue **jizya** and the delivery of **1,000 Wallachian boys** for the janissary crop. Vlad defiantly executed the envoys and warned the Transylvanian Saxons of Brașov (10 September 1460) of the impending Ottoman invasion.

Vlad had not paid the annual tribute of **10,000 ducats** since 1459. When Mehmed renewed his demands, Vlad refused, prompting the Ottomans to cross the Danube to collect boys themselves. Vlad intercepted and impaled them. Negotiations deteriorated further in late **1461**, when Vlad claimed poverty and refused to leave Wallachia without a pasha installed in his stead. Meanwhile, Mehmed learned of Vlad's alliance with Hungary and secretly dispatched **Hamza Pasha**, bey of Nicopolis, to lure Vlad into a trap at **Giurgiu**.

However, Vlad learned of the ambush and countered it with a carefully prepared trap. Hamza Pasha's 1,000 cavalrymen were annihilated in a narrow pass north of Giurgiu by Wallachian handgunners—who represent some of the earliest documented European use of gunpowder “in a deadly artistic way.” Vlad then disguised himself as a Turk, infiltrated Giurgiu fortress, and ordered the gates opened in flawless Turkish before demolishing it.

Vlad followed with a massive winter campaign across the frozen Danube, dividing his army into detachments and covering **800 kilometers in two weeks** while slaughtering **23,884 Turks**—to which he added many more burned in their homes. His letter to Matthias Corvinus dated **11 February 1462** proudly listed precise victim counts from each locality.

These events terrified the Ottomans. Mehmed paused his siege in Corinth and sent **Mahmud Pasha** with 18,000 troops to destroy **Brăila**, but Vlad defeated this force as

well—only 8,000 Turks survived, according to the *Historia Turchesca*. Throughout Europe, reactions were jubilant: Transylvanian Saxons, Italian states, the Pope, Venetians, even the Knights of Rhodes celebrated Vlad's campaign. Genoa's colony at Caffa credited Vlad with saving them from a planned Ottoman naval assault. Many Turks abandoned the European side of the empire entirely, fleeing to Anatolia.

Eventually Mehmed gave up other campaigns and personally prepared to confront Vlad Tepeş.

Advance of Mehmed's Army

The Ottomans attempted their first crossing at **Vidin**, but were driven back by Wallachian archers. On **4 June**, 300 janissaries died while landing at **Turnu Severin**. The janissary chronicler **Konstantin Mihailović** described the bloody struggle and eventual Ottoman success after deploying **artillery pieces**.

Vlad responded using scorched earth tactics. Villages and livestock were evacuated to the mountains, wells were poisoned, and rivers redirected to create marshes. Pits were dug and covered with foliage to trap horses. Vlad sent plague-infected individuals (including those with bubonic plague, leprosy, and tuberculosis) into Ottoman ranks. Disease spread rapidly. For seven days, Mehmed's army marched through desolation, finding neither people nor food.

The Ottoman fleet attempted small raids on **Brăila** and **Chilia**, but achieved little because Vlad had already destroyed most Bulgarian ports.

A captured Wallachian soldier, when tortured and bribed, refused to reveal information; Mehmed allegedly remarked, “If your master had many like you, he could conquer the world.”

The Night Attack—17 June 1462

Unable to halt Mehmed's advance, Vlad prepared a decisive strike. The Turks camped south of **Târgovişte**. Vlad may have entered their camp beforehand in disguise to locate Mehmed's tent, according to Chalkokondyles.

Because Mehmed had ordered his soldiers not to leave their tents at night, Vlad planned a nocturnal raid. With **7,000–10,000** horsemen (some sources claim 24,000), he launched multiple attacks between **three hours after sunset and four in the morning**. The Wallachians used torches and bugles to sow panic. Some sources claim heavy Ottoman losses; others suggest minimal casualties, but acknowledge many dead horses and camels. Vlad personally aimed for Mehmed's tent but mistakenly attacked the tents of Grand Viziers **Ishak Pasha** and **Mahmud Pasha** instead.

A Wallachian eyewitness later recounted the battle to papal legate **Niccolò Modrussa**. According to this testimony, Mehmed panicked and fled during the night,

returning only when reprimanded by his commanders.

The janissary commander **Mihaloğlu Ali Bey** later pursued and killed **1,000–2,000** Wallachians. Venetian bailo **Domenico Balbi** reported casualties as:

5,000 Wallachian

15,000 Ottomans

March to Târgoviște

Despite shaken morale, Mehmed advanced to the capital, only to find it abandoned. For half an hour, the army marched between two lines of **20,000 impaled corpses**—Ottoman prisoners executed by Vlad. Hamza Pasha's rotten corpse was displayed on the tallest stake. Some sources say the impalements stretched **60 miles** beyond the city walls.

Chalkokondyles claims Mehmed was stunned, declaring that a man capable of such deeds could not be easily deprived of his realm.

Aftermath and Withdrawal

Mehmed fortified his camp with deep trenches and prepared to retreat. Around **20 June**, Vlad left **6,000** soldiers hidden in the woods to strike at any stragglers while he moved elsewhere. These troops attacked the Ottoman rear guard near Târgoviște, killing the commander "Yusuf," though **Turahanoğlu Ömer Bey** later reversed the battle, killing **~2,000 Wallachians**.

Meanwhile, **Stephen III of Moldavia**, seeking to seize **Chilia**, attacked the fortress but was driven off by a Wallachian garrison of 7,000 men; Stephen was wounded in the foot.

On his return, Vlad confronted Mehmed again near **Buzău**, but was repelled with severe losses. Mehmed then burned **Brăila** on **29 June**, gathered slaves and livestock (200,000 cattle and horses), and sailed back to **Adrianople**, arriving on **11 July**. The Ottomans declared a great victory on **12 July**, despite having failed to conquer Wallachia.

5) Important Characters and Their Roles

> Ottoman

Molla

Gürani

Molla Gürani was an influential Ottoman scholar and the tutor of Sultan Mehmed II. He played a significant role in shaping the education and intellectual environment of the future conqueror.

Fatih Sultan Mehmed

Fatih Sultan Mehmed was the Ottoman sultan who conquered Constantinople and expanded the empire's power. He was known for his military strategy, strong leadership, and support for science and culture.

Grand Vizier Mahmud Pasha

Mahmud Pasha served as grand vizier under Mehmed II and contributed to major military and administrative reforms. He was known for his diplomacy as well as his military leadership.

Mehmet Pasha

Mehmet Pasha was an Ottoman statesman active during Mehmed II's reign. He took part in several campaigns and held important administrative duties.

Hasan Pasha

Hasan Pasha was a high-ranking Ottoman military commander. He supported key campaigns that strengthened Ottoman control in the Balkans.

Ishak Pasha

Ishak Pasha was an influential statesman and provincial governor in the Ottoman Empire. He is also remembered for the architectural legacy of Ishak Pasha Palace.

Gedik Ahmed Pasha

Gedik Ahmed Pasha was a prominent admiral and military leader under Mehmed II. He played a decisive role in Ottoman naval expansion, especially in the Mediterranean.

Zağanos Pasha

Zağanos Pasha was one of Mehmed II's closest advisors and a key commander during the

conquest of Constantinople. He contributed strategically to siege operations and state reforms.

Hamza Bey

Hamza Bey was an Ottoman commander known for his efforts in the Balkans. He was one of the early military figures who helped strengthen Ottoman dominance in the region.

Molla Hüsrev

Molla Hüsrev was a celebrated Ottoman jurist and scholar. His works shaped Islamic legal studies in the empire for centuries.

Hayreddin Çelebi

Hayreddin Çelebi was an Ottoman administrative official serving in various legal and scholarly positions. He contributed to the intellectual life of the early classical period.

Yağmurcu Ahmed Ağa

Yağmurcu Ahmed Ağa was an Ottoman officer known for his service in logistical and administrative operations. His role typically involved managing supplies and supporting military organization.

> Wallachia

Doamna Jusztina Szilágyi

Jusztina Szilágyi was a noblewoman from a prominent Hungarian family. She is associated with political alliances in the region during the 15th century.

Vlad III Țepeș

Vlad III Țepeș was the voivode of Wallachia, known for resisting Ottoman influence and ruling with strict discipline. His harsh methods earned him a fierce reputation and a legendary place in regional history.

Dumitru the Ban

Dumitru the Ban was a Wallachian noble and regional governor. He played an important role in local administration and military affairs.

Vornic Udrea

Vornic Udrea was a high-ranking Wallachian official responsible for judicial and administrative duties. He was influential in the political struggles of his time.

Stroe the Postelnic

Stroe the Postelnic served as a court official in Wallachia. He managed ceremonial duties and was involved in diplomatic matters.

Vlad the Monk

Vlad the Monk was a member of the Wallachian ruling family and briefly contested the throne. He spent many years in monastic life, which gave him his epithet.

Captain Stoica

Captain Stoica was a Wallachian military leader noted for his involvement in regional conflicts. He commanded local forces and supported his ruler's campaigns.

King Matthias Corvinus of Hungary

Matthias Corvinus was one of Hungary's most powerful and enlightened kings. He strengthened the state through military successes and major cultural reforms.

Ştefan cel Mare

Ştefan cel Mare was the celebrated ruler of Moldavia known for resisting Ottoman expansion. He is remembered as a national hero for his military victories and religious patronage.

Iova the Spătar

Iova the Spătar was a military commander responsible for cavalry forces in Wallachia. His title "Spătar" signifies his role as a sword-bearer or commander.

Radu of Gherghița

Radu of Gherghița was a Wallachian noble who held various administrative posts. He participated in political struggles among Wallachian princes.

Comis Dobre

Comis Dobre was an official responsible for managing stables and cavalry units. His position made him an important figure in Wallachian military logistics.